

Hyperinvariant subspaces for n -normal operators

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1. Introduction. Let \mathfrak{H} be a complex Hilbert space and let $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ be the algebra of all bounded linear operators on \mathfrak{H} . (In what follows, all Hilbert spaces will be complex, and all operators under discussion will be bounded and linear.) A closed subspace $\mathfrak{M} \subset \mathfrak{H}$ is said to be *hyperinvariant* for an operator A in $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ if it is non-trivial and is invariant for every operator which commutes with A ; that is, if \mathfrak{M} is distinct from $\{0\}$ and \mathfrak{H} and $B(\mathfrak{M}) \subset \mathfrak{M}$ for every operator B in $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ satisfying $AB = BA$.

The notion of hyperinvariant subspace was introduced by SZ.-NAGY and FOIAS (under the name "ultrainvariant") [10]; these authors and later DOUGLAS and PEARCY [3], [4] characterized the hyperinvariant subspaces of certain types of operators and gave a number of sufficient conditions for an invariant subspace to be hyperinvariant.

The principal purpose of this paper is to show (Theorem 5.3) that every operator which is n -normal, in a sense to be defined below, has a hyperinvariant subspace. Let $\mathfrak{H}^n = \mathfrak{H} \oplus \mathfrak{H} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathfrak{H}$ denote the orthogonal sum of n copies of the Hilbert space \mathfrak{H} . One knows that every operator in $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H}^n)$ can be written as an $n \times n$ matrix $(A_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$ where each A_{ij} ($1 \leq i, j \leq n$) belongs to $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$. An operator B on a Hilbert space \mathfrak{K} is said to be n -normal if there is a Hilbert space \mathfrak{H} and n^2 mutually commuting normal operators A_{ij} ($1 \leq i, j \leq n$) acting on \mathfrak{H} such that $\mathfrak{K} = \mathfrak{H}^n$ and $B = (A_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$.

The class of n -normal operators may be defined equivalently using the concept of *von Neumann algebras*, i.e. of weakly closed, self-adjoint algebras of operators on Hilbert space, containing the identity operator. If \mathcal{A} is an abelian von Neumann algebra acting on \mathfrak{H} then $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ will denote the von Neumann algebra consisting of all $n \times n$ matrices with entries from \mathcal{A} acting on \mathfrak{H}^n in the usual fashion. It is immediate that an operator A on a Hilbert space is n -normal if and only if there

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exists an abelian von Neumann algebra \mathcal{A} such that A belongs to $M_n(\mathcal{A})$. (It is worth noting that there are operators which are n -normal in the sense of [7] but are not n -normal in our sense. (See § 6.)

The proof that every n -normal operator has a hyperinvariant subspace is accomplished in two steps. First we show that if A and B are quasi-similar operators and if B has a hyperinvariant subspace, then so does A . (See Section 2.) Next, the algebra $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ is identified with an algebra of continuous matrix-valued functions on an extremally disconnected compact Hausdorff space. Using this identification and the techniques developed in [1], [2], and [8], every operator is shown to be quasi-similar to an operator J in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ which is in "Jordan form". These operators are easily seen to be spectral operators in the sense of Dunford, and thus to have hyperinvariant subspaces [5].

2. Quasi-similarity of operators. If A and B are operators on the Hilbert spaces \mathfrak{H} and \mathfrak{K} respectively, then A and B are said to be *quasi-similar* if there are bounded linear operators $R: \mathfrak{K} \rightarrow \mathfrak{H}$ and $S: \mathfrak{H} \rightarrow \mathfrak{K}$ which satisfy the following conditions:

1. $SA = BS$ and $AR = RB$.
2. R and S have zero kernels and dense ranges.

In [11], SZ.-NAGY and FOIAS prove that a quasi-similarity between an operator A and a unitary operator U induces a one to one, order preserving map of the lattice of hyperinvariant subspaces of U into that of A . Examination of their argument also yields the following:

Theorem 2.1. *If A and B are quasi-similar operators on Hilbert spaces \mathfrak{H} and \mathfrak{K} respectively, and if B has a hyperinvariant subspace, then so does A .*

Proof. Let R and S be the operators which invoke the quasi-similarity and let \mathfrak{M} be the subspace of \mathfrak{K} which is hyperinvariant for B . Define:

$$a(\mathfrak{M}) = \overline{R(\mathfrak{M})} \quad \text{and} \quad b(\mathfrak{M}) = \{f \in \mathfrak{H} \mid S(f) \in \mathfrak{M}\}.$$

Because $\mathfrak{M} \neq \mathfrak{K}$ and S has dense range, $b(\mathfrak{M}) \neq \mathfrak{H}$. Also, $a(\mathfrak{M}) \neq \{0\}$ since R is one to one and $\mathfrak{M} \neq \{0\}$.

If T is an operator on \mathfrak{H} which commutes with A , then

$$BSTR = SATR = STAR = STRB.$$

Thus STR commutes with B and therefore $STR(\mathfrak{M}) \subset \mathfrak{M}$. It follows that $Ta(\mathfrak{M}) = \overline{TR(\mathfrak{M})} \subset b(\mathfrak{M})$. Define $q(\mathfrak{M})$ to be the smallest closed subspace of \mathfrak{H} which contains $Ta(\mathfrak{M})$ for every T in $\mathcal{L}(\mathfrak{H})$ that commutes with A . Then $\{0\} \neq a(\mathfrak{M}) \subset q(\mathfrak{M}) \subset b(\mathfrak{M}) \neq \mathfrak{H}$ and $q(\mathfrak{M})$ is hyperinvariant for A .

Examination of the above argument shows that if B has two distinct hyper-

Suppose A , B and q are as in Theorem 2.1 and suppose B is normal. If \mathfrak{M} and \mathfrak{N} are distinct hyperinvariant subspaces for B , then $q(\mathfrak{M}) \neq q(\mathfrak{N})$.

$$\|A(\cdot)\| = \sup_{x \in X} \|A(x)\|.$$

Elements of $M_n(X)$ may also be viewed as $n \times n$ matrices with entries in $C(X)$, the algebra of all continuous, complex valued function defined on X . The algebras $M_n(X)$ have been studied extensively by PEARCY and DECKARD in [1], [2], and [8].

$$S(\cdot)A(\cdot)=B(\cdot)S(\cdot) \quad \text{and} \quad A(\cdot)R(\cdot)=R(\cdot)B(\cdot).$$

Proof. Consider the system L of homogeneous linear equations with coefficients in $C(X)$ which corresponds to the matrix equation $S(\cdot)A(\cdot)=B(\cdot)S(\cdot)$:

[illegible]

where $m=n^2$ and the unknown functions s_i represent the entries of $S(\cdot)$ in some prescribed order. For x in X , let $L(x)$ be the corresponding system of scalar equations.

Choose an x_0 in U so that v_0 , the rank of $L(x_0)$, is maximal for x in U . There is a $v_0 \times v_0$ minor $N(x_0)$ of the matrix of coefficients of $L(x_0)$ such that $\det N(x_0) \neq 0$. Consequently, $\det N(\cdot)$ does not vanish on a compact open neighborhood V_1 of x_0 , $V_1 \subset U$. By the hypothesis, there is an x_1 in $D \cap V_1$ and an invertible complex matrix T_{x_1} satisfying $T_{x_1} A(x_1) = B(x_1) T_{x_1}$. If u_1, \dots, u_m are the entries in T_{x_1} , then (u_1, \dots, u_m) is a solution to $L(x_1)$. For i not affiliated with $N(\cdot)$, let $s_i \equiv u_i$ on V_1 . For the v_0 values of i affiliated with $N(\cdot)$, use the already assigned s_j and Cramer's rule to define s_i . Since the c_{ij} are continuous and $\det N(x) \neq 0$ for x in V_1 , the s_i are continuous and satisfy L . Thus if $S(\cdot)$ is the matrix in $M_n(V_1)$ with the s_i in the appropriate positions, then $S(x)A(x) = B(x)S(x)$ for each x in X .

Since $S(x_1) = T_{x_1}$ is invertible, and the set of invertible matrices is open, there is a compact open set $V \subseteq V_1$ such that the restriction of $S(\cdot)$ to V is invertible in $M_n(V)$.

Theorem 3.2. *If $A(\cdot)$ and $B(\cdot)$ satisfy the conditions of Lemma 3.1, then $A(\cdot)$ and $B(\cdot)$ are quasi-similar in $M_n(X)$.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{F} denote the collection of all families $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of disjoint compact open subsets of X such that for each α in I there is an $S_\alpha(\cdot)$ in $M_n(U_\alpha)$ which is invertible in $M_n(U_\alpha)$ and satisfies $S_\alpha(x)A(x) = B(x)S_\alpha(x)$ for each x in U_α . Order \mathcal{F} by inclusion and use Zorn's lemma to obtain a maximal family $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in \mathcal{F} .

If $Y = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ is not dense in X , then by Lemma 3.1 there is a compact open set $V \subset X - Y$ and an $S(\cdot)$ in $M_n(V)$ which affects a similarity between the restrictions of $A(\cdot)$ and $B(\cdot)$ to V . This contradicts the maximality of $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$.

By Lemma 2.1 of [1], there are matrices $S(\cdot)$ and $R(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$ which extend each

$$\frac{1}{\|S_\alpha(\cdot)\|} S_\alpha(\cdot) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\|S_\alpha^{-1}(\cdot)\|} S_\alpha^{-1}(\cdot)$$

respectively. These matrices satisfy the equalities

$$S(\cdot)A(\cdot) = B(\cdot)S(\cdot) \quad \text{and} \quad A(\cdot)R(\cdot) = R(\cdot)B(\cdot).$$

It remains to show that $R(\cdot)$ and $S(\cdot)$ are quasi-invertible. Suppose $C(\cdot)$ is a matrix in $M_n(X)$ and $C(\cdot)R(\cdot) = 0$; that is, $C(x)R(x) = 0$ for each x in X . For each x in the dense subset Y of X , $R(x)$ is invertible and so $C(x) = 0$. It follows that $C(\cdot) = 0$. The other three implications are easily proved in the same way.

4. Jordan forms in $M_n(X)$. In [2], DECKARD and PEARCY exhibit a Stonian space X and a matrix $A(\cdot)$ in $M_2(X)$ for which there is no $J(\cdot)$ in $M_2(X)$ which is similar to $A(\cdot)$ and is such that $J(x)$ is in Jordan form for each x in X . If the condition of similarity is relaxed to quasisimilarity, then such Jordan forms always exist. This is shown via the following lemmas.

Lemma 4. 1. *If $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n$ are in $C(X)$, where X is a Stonian space, and if U is a non-empty, open subset of X , then there is a non-empty, compact, open set $V \subset U$ such that for each i and j ($1 \leq i, j \leq n$) either $\varphi_i(x) = \varphi_j(x)$ for all x in V , or $\varphi_i(x) \neq \varphi_j(x)$ for all x in V .*

Proof. Pick x_0 in U so that the number of distinct values $\varphi_i(x_0)$ is maximal; assume these values are $\varphi_{i_1}(x_0), \dots, \varphi_{i_l}(x_0)$. There is an open neighborhood U_0 of x_0 , $U_0 \subset U$, such that $\varphi_{i_j}(x) \neq \varphi_{i_k}(x)$ for $j \neq k$ and x in U_0 . For each i , $\varphi_i(x_0) = \varphi_{i_j}(x_0)$ for some j and hence $\varphi_i(x_0) \neq \varphi_{i_k}(x_0)$ for $k \neq j$. Therefore $\varphi_i(x) \neq \varphi_{i_k}(x)$ for each k , $k \neq j$ and for each x in some compact open neighborhood V_i of x_0 , $V_i \subset U_0$. Consequently, $\varphi_i(x) = \varphi_{i_j}(x)$ for each x in V_i and $V = \bigcap_{i=1}^n V_i$ is the desired set.

Lemma 4. 2. *If U is non-empty subset of the Stonian space X , and if $B(\cdot)$ is in $M_n(X)$, then there is a non-empty compact open set $V \subset U$ on which the rank of $B(\cdot)$ is constant.*

Proof. Choose an x_0 in U so that r_0 , the rank of $B(x_0)$, is maximal for x in U . There is an $r_0 \times r_0$ minor $M(x_0)$ of $B(x_0)$ with $\det M(x_0) \neq 0$, and hence $\det M(\cdot)$ does not vanish in some compact open neighborhood V of x_0 , $V \subset U$. It follows that the rank of $B(\cdot) \equiv r_0$ on V .

Suppose that A and A' are $n \times n$ scalar matrices in Jordan form, having the single eigenvalues λ and λ' respectively. More explicitly, suppose $A = \sum_{i=1}^k \oplus A_i$ where A_i is an $s_i \times s_i$ Jordan block matrix for λ and $s_{i-1} \leq s_i$ for $1 < i \leq k$. Similarly, $A' = \sum_{i=1}^l \oplus A'_i$ where A'_i is an $s'_i \times s'_i$ Jordan block for λ' and the A'_i are arranged in order of decreasing size. (A Jordan block for λ is a square matrix with each entry on the main diagonal equal to λ , with ones on the diagonal above the main diagonal, and with zeros in all other positions. A finite scalar matrix is in Jordan form if it is the direct sum of Jordan blocks.)

Lemma 4. 3. *If, in the notation established above, $\text{Rank}(A - \lambda)^r = \text{Rank}(A' - \lambda')^r$ for each $r \leq \max\{s_1, s'_1\}$, then $k = l$ and $s_i = s'_i$ for each i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.*

Proof. This lemma is proved by induction on $\max\{s_1, s'_1\}$. Since

$$0 = \text{Rank}(A - \lambda)^{s_1} = \text{Rank}(A' - \lambda')^{s_1}$$

and $A' - \lambda'$ is nilpotent of index s'_1 , $s_1 \geq s'_1$. Similarly, $s'_1 \geq s_1$ and so $s_1 = s'_1$. Because $\text{Rank}(A - \lambda)^{s_1-1} = \text{Rank}(A' - \lambda')^{s_1-1}$, the number of s_i equal to s_1 is the same as the number of s'_j equal to s_1 . Consequently, if m is this number then the matrices

$$B = \text{diag}(A_{m+1}, \dots, A_k) \quad \text{and} \quad B' = \text{diag}(A'_{m+1}, \dots, A'_l)$$

satisfy the hypothesis of the lemma and $\max \{s_{m+1}, s'_{m+1}\} < s_1$. Therefore, by the induction hypothesis, $k-m = l-m$ and $s_i = s'_i$ for $m+1 \leq i \leq k$.

In [1], DECKARD and PEARCY prove that if X is a Stonian space and if $\varrho(\lambda, x) = \lambda^n + a_{n-1}(x)\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + a_2(x)\lambda + a_0(x)$ is a monic polynomial with coefficients in $C(X)$, then there is a function φ in $C(X)$ such that $\varrho(\varphi(x), x) = 0$ for every x in X . It follows that all such polynomials can be written in the form $\varrho(\lambda, x) = \prod_{i=1}^n (\lambda - \varphi_i(x))$ where the functions φ_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) are in $C(X)$. Of particular interest in this paper is the case when $\varrho(\lambda, x)$ is the characteristic polynomial of some matrix $A(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$:

$$\varrho(\lambda, x) = \det [\lambda I - A(x)].$$

In this case, $\varrho(A(x), x) = 0$ for each x in X .

Lemma 4.4. *If U is a non-empty open subset of the Stonian space X , and if $A(\cdot)$ is a matrix in $M_n(X)$, then there is a non-empty, compact, open set V contained in U and a matrix $J(\cdot)$ in $M_n(V)$ such that $J(x)$ is in Jordan form and is similar to $A(x)$ for each x in V .*

Proof. By virtue of Lemmas 4.1 and 4.2 there is a compact open set $V \subset U$ which satisfies the following conditions:

1. The restriction to V of the characteristic polynomial $\varrho(\lambda, \cdot)$ of $A(\cdot)$ can be factored as

$$\varrho(\lambda, \cdot) = \prod_{i=1}^k (\lambda - \varphi_i)^{r_i}$$

where for $i \neq j$, $\varphi_i(x) \neq \varphi_j(x)$ for each x in V .

2. For every set of positive integers

$$\{s_i: 1 \leq i \leq k, 0 \leq s_i \leq r_i\},$$

the matrix $\prod_{i=1}^k (A(\cdot) - \varphi_i)^{s_i}$ has constant rank on V .

For x in X , let $J(x) = \text{diag}(J_x^1, J_x^2, \dots, J_x^k)$ be the matrix similar to $A(x)$ where J_x^i is a $t_x^i \times t_x^i$ matrix in Jordan form with a single eigenvalue $\varphi_i(x)$ and the Jordan blocks of J_x^i are arranged in order of decreasing size. If x and y are in V , then for $1 \leq i \leq k$, J_x^i and J_y^i satisfy the conditions of Lemma 4.3. In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} t_x^i &= n - \text{Rank}(J(x) - \varphi_i(x))^{r_i} = n - \text{Rank}(A(x) - \varphi_i(x))^{r_i} = \\ &= n - \text{Rank}(A(y) - \varphi_i(y))^{r_i} = n - \text{Rank}(J(y) - \varphi_i(y))^{r_i} = t_y^i, \end{aligned}$$

and, for $s_i \leq t_x^i$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rank}(J_x^i - \varphi_i(x))^{s_i} &= \text{Rank}(J(x) - \varphi_i(x))^{s_i} - (n - t_x^i) = \\ &= \text{Rank}(J(y) - \varphi_i(y))^{s_i} - (n - t_y^i) = \text{Rank}(J_y^i - \varphi_i(y))^{s_i}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, J_x^i and J_y^i differ only along the main diagonal, and hence the same is true of $J(x)$ and $J(y)$.

It is now easy to see that the matrix valued function $J(\cdot)$ is continuous; in fact, the only entries along its main diagonal are the functions φ_i , and the entries in all other positions are constant functions. Thus $J(\cdot)$ is in $M_n(V)$, and the proof is complete.

Theorem 4.5. *If X is a Stonian space and $A(\cdot)$ is a matrix in $M_n(X)$, then there is a $J(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$ such that $J(x)$ is in Jordan form for each x in X and such that for each x in a dense subset D of X , $J(x)$ is similar to $A(x)$.*

Proof. Let \mathcal{F} be the family of all collections $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ of non-empty disjoint, compact open subsets of X where for each α in I there is a $J_\alpha(\cdot)$ in $M_n(U_\alpha)$ such that $J_\alpha(x)$ is in Jordan form and similar to $A(x)$ for each x in U_α . Order \mathcal{F} by inclusion and use Zorn's lemma to obtain a maximal family $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$ in \mathcal{F} . If $D = \bigcup_{\alpha \in I} U_\alpha$ is not dense in X , then by Lemma 4.4, there is a non-empty compact open set V contained in $X - \bar{D}$ and a $J(\cdot)$ in $M_n(V)$ which pointwise is in Jordan form and is similar to $A(\cdot)$. But this contradicts the maximality of $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$. Therefore D is dense in X . For each α in I and x in U_α , the entries in $J_\alpha(x)$ are all bounded by $\max\{\|\varphi\|, \dots, \|\varphi_n\|, 1\}$; therefore, by Lemma 2.1 of [1], there is a $J(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$ which extends each $J_\alpha(\cdot)$.

It remains to show that for x_0 in $X - D$, $J(x_0)$ is in Jordan form. Suppose $J(\cdot) = (J_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$ where each J_{ij} is in $C(X)$; then for $j \neq i, i+1$, J_{ij} is the zero function and for $j = i+1$, $J_{ij}(x_0)$ is either zero or one. Suppose $J_{i,i+1}(x_0) = 1$, then if $\langle x_\beta \rangle$ is any net in D which converges to x_0 , $J_{i,i+1}(x_\beta)$ converges to 1. Since for each β , $J_{i,i+1}(x_\beta)$ is either zero or one, the net $\langle J_{i,i+1}(x_\beta) \rangle_\beta$ is eventually identically equal to one. But each $J(x_\beta)$ is in Jordan form, so eventually, $J_{ii}(x_\beta) = J_{i+1,i+1}(x_\beta)$ and hence $J_{ii}(x_0) = J_{i+1,i+1}(x_0)$. Therefore $J(x_0)$ is in Jordan form.

Using Theorems 3.2 and 4.5, the following is obtained:

Theorem 4.6. *If X is a Stonian space and $A(\cdot)$ is a matrix in $M_n(X)$, then there is a $J(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$ such that $J(x)$ is in Jordan form for each x , and $J(\cdot)$ is quasi-similar to $A(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$.*

5. An application to $M_n(\mathcal{A})$. If \mathcal{A} is an abelian von Neumann algebra acting on the Hilbert space \mathfrak{H} , then the maximal ideal space X of \mathcal{A} is Stonian and the Gelfand map $\Gamma: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow C(X)$ is a *-isometrical isomorphism. Let $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ denote the von Neumann algebra consisting of all $n \times n$ matrices with entries in \mathcal{A} acting on \mathfrak{H}^n in the usual fashion. To each $A = (A_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n$ in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ there corresponds a natural element $A(\cdot)$ in $M_n(X)$,

$$A(\cdot) = (\Gamma(A_{ij}))_{i,j=1}^n.$$

This correspondence is clearly a *-isomorphism.

If R is an operator in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$, then the kernel of R is the kernel of R^*R and the projection P onto the kernel of R is a spectral projection for R^*R and thus lies in the von Neumann algebra $M_n(\mathcal{A})$. Therefore if the kernel of R is larger than $\{0\}$, there is a non-zero operator P in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ satisfying $RP=0$. By taking adjoints, one sees that if the range of R is not dense, there is a non-zero P in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ such that $PR=0$. It follows that an operator R in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ has zero kernel and dense range if and only if the corresponding element $R(\cdot)$ of $M_n(X)$ is quasi-invertible in $M_n(X)$. Therefore, if $A(\cdot)$ and $B(\cdot)$ are quasi-similar matrices in $M_n(X)$, then A and B are quasi-similar as operators on \mathfrak{H}^n . This observation yields the following theorem.

Theorem 5.1. *If \mathcal{A} is an abelian von Neumann algebra and if A is an operator in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$, then there is an operator J in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ which is in Jordan form and is quasi-similar to A . That is,*

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} J_1 & P_1 & & & \\ & J_2 & P_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & P_{n-1} \\ & & & & J_n \end{pmatrix},$$

where J_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) and P_j ($1 \leq j \leq n-1$) are in \mathcal{A} and the operators P_j are projections.

In [6], S. R. FOGUEL obtains a similar result using measure theoretic techniques.

A matrix of complex numbers which is in Jordan form can be written in an obvious way as the sum of a diagonal matrix and a nilpotent matrix. A simple calculation shows that the diagonal part and the nilpotent part commute. This observation has its obvious analog for matrices in $M_n(X)$. Using this analog, and the relationship between $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ and $M_n(X)$, the following is obtained:

Corollary 5.2. *Every operator A in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ is quasi-similar to an operator $D+N$ where D and N are commuting operators in $M_n(\mathcal{A})$, D is normal, and N is nilpotent.*

We are now in a position to prove the basic theorem of this paper.

Theorem 5.3. *Every non-scalar n -normal operator A on a Hilbert space \mathfrak{H} has a hyperinvariant subspace.*

Proof. By virtue of Theorem 2.1 and Corollary 5.2, we may assume that $A = D+N$, where D is a normal operator, N is a nilpotent operator, and D and N commute. In [5], DUNFORD shows that such operators are spectral operators,

and hence if T is an operator which commutes with A , then T commutes with the resolution of the identity for A ; that is, T commutes with the spectral projections for D . Therefore, if D is not a multiple of the identity operator, D has spectral projections distinct from 0 and I , and the ranges of the projections are hyperinvariant subspaces for A .

In case D is scalar, then a subspace \mathfrak{M} of \mathfrak{H} will be hyperinvariant for A just in case it is hyperinvariant for N . But A is non-scalar, so N cannot be the zero operator. On the other hand, N is nilpotent so $N(\mathfrak{H})$ is not dense in \mathfrak{H} . Therefore $\mathfrak{M} = \overline{N(\mathfrak{H})}$ is a hyperinvariant subspace for N and hence for A .

A simple argument extends Theorem 5.3 to direct sums of n -normal operators. If α is a non-zero scalar, then the scalar matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 & & & \\ & \lambda & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & \alpha & & & \\ & \lambda & \alpha & & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & & \ddots & \alpha \\ & & & & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

are similar. In fact, the former is the Jordan form for the latter. Thus if J is a scalar matrix in Jordan form, and J is written as $D + N$ where D is a diagonal matrix and N has zero entries in every position except perhaps on the diagonal above the main diagonal where N may have some ones, then J is similar to $D + \alpha N$. Now if X is a Stonian space, and $J(\cdot)$ as an element of $M_n(X)$ is pointwise in Jordan form, then by writing $J(\cdot) = D(\cdot) + N(\cdot)$ as in the scalar case and by using Theorem 3.2, we get that $J(\cdot)$ is quasi-similar in $M_n(X)$ to $D(\cdot) + \alpha N(\cdot)$. Thus, using the representation of $M_n(\mathcal{A})$ as $M_n(X)$, we see that in Corollary 5.2 if N is not zero then we can arrange things so that the norm of N is any positive number.

Theorem 5.4. *If for each integer $i \geq 0$, A_i is a possibly zero i -normal operator acting on the Hilbert space \mathfrak{H}_i , and if A is the direct sum operator $\Sigma \oplus A_i$, then if A is non-scalar A has a hyperinvariant subspace.*

Proof. Each A_i is quasi-similar to an operator $D_i + N_i$ where D_i and N_i commute, D_i is normal, N_i is nilpotent of index at most i and $\|N_i\| \leq 1/i$. Thus A is quasi-similar to $D + N$ where $D = \Sigma \oplus D_i$ and $N = \Sigma \oplus N_i$. Clearly, D is normal and commutes with N . Furthermore,

$$\|N^n\| = \sup_i \|N_i^n\| = \sup_{i \geq n} (1/i)^n \leq (1/n)^n.$$

Therefore $\|N^n\|^{1/n}$ converges to zero, N is quasinilpotent, and $D + N$ is a spectral operator. If D is not a multiple of the identity operator, then the spectral subspaces

for D are hyperinvariant for $D + N$. If D is a scalar operator, then N , as a non-zero direct sum of nilpotent operators, will have many hyperinvariant subspaces and these will be hyperinvariant for $D + N$ also. In any case, $D + N$ has hyperinvariant subspaces, and, by Theorem 2.1 so does A .

Translated into the language of von Neumann algebras, Theorem 5.4 says that every operator which belongs to a type I finite von Neumann algebra has a hyperinvariant subspace.

6. The term n -normal has been used with a somewhat broader meaning than that which we have given it. The algebras $M_n(\mathcal{A})$, where \mathcal{A} is an abelian von Neumann algebra, are commonly said to be of type I_n , and a von Neumann algebra is n -normal if it is the direct sum of algebras of type I_k where $k \leq n$. According to [8] an operator is n -normal if the von Neumann algebra it generates is n -normal. To avoid confusion, we will say that operators which are n -normal in this latter sense are of type n .

In [7], for example, a von Neumann algebra \mathcal{V} is equivalently defined as n -normal if it satisfies the identity $\sum \pm X_{i_1} X_{i_2} \dots X_{i_{2n}} = 0$, where $X_i (i = 1, \dots, 2n)$ are arbitrary elements of \mathcal{V} , the sum is taken over all permutations of $(1, 2, \dots, 2n)$, and the sign is determined by the parity of the permutation. This characterization makes it clear that any von Neumann subalgebra of an n -normal algebra is n -normal, and thus that an operator which is n -normal in our sense is of type n . That the converse is false can be seen in the following example.

Let \mathcal{A} denote the multiplication algebra acting on L^2 of the unit circle with Lebesgue measure, and let \mathcal{C} be the algebra of all operators on one-dimensional Hilbert space. If \mathcal{V} denotes the direct sum algebra $\mathcal{C} + M_2(\mathcal{A})$ and if T is the operator

$$I \oplus \begin{pmatrix} -1 & S \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where S is multiplication by the coordinate function, then T generates \mathcal{V} , and thus T is of type 2. But T is not n -normal for any n ; for suppose it were. Then T and hence \mathcal{V} are contained in some $M_n(\mathcal{W})$ where \mathcal{W} is an abelian von Neumann algebra, and, since T is not normal, n is at least 2. Next consider the rank one projection P which is the direct sum of the identity element of \mathcal{C} and the zero element of $M_2(\mathcal{A})$. By Theorem 1 of [8], P is unitarily equivalent to a diagonal element D of $M_n(\mathcal{W})$. If D_1, \dots, D_n are the diagonal entries in D , then for some j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, D_j is a rank one projection in \mathcal{W} , and the diagonal operator E , all of whose main diagonal entries are equal to D_j , is a rank n projection which commutes with $M_n(\mathcal{W})$ and hence with \mathcal{V} . On the other hand, the commutant of \mathcal{V} consists of all operators of the form

$$\lambda I \oplus \begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & A \end{pmatrix}$$

where λ is any scalar and A is in \mathcal{A} . In the particular, if the commuting operator is a projection, then λ is 0 or 1 and A is multiplication by the characteristic function of some measurable set. The only way such a projection can be of finite rank is for A to be the zero operator, and so the only non-zero, finite rank projection which commutes with the algebra \mathcal{V} is the rank one projection P . But E is a projection of rank $n \neq 1$ and E commutes with \mathcal{V} . This is a contradiction and thus the original assumption, that T was n -normal, is false.

Fortunately, this confusion over definitions causes no problems with our Theorem 5.3, for if T is a non-scalar operator of type n , then T is a direct sum of operators which are i -normal for some i and hence, by Theorem 5.4, T has a hyperinvariant subspace.

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